

FINDING LEADERSHIP FOR THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF U.S. HIGHER EDUCATION

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The internationalization of U.S. higher education has depended on leadership from a variety of sources in different strengths and purposes over time. The leadership shifted from President Lyndon Johnson's sponsorship of legislation, as part of a trilogy of legislation known as the Great Society, to a collaborative and at times competitive leadership marked by a struggle to establish international education as legitimate focus for higher education institutions. Leadership came in the form of advocates for international education who were drawn from the stakeholders. These advocates included practitioners, researchers, professional organizations, and alliances. Leader-advocates also contended with philosophical changes in the way higher education perceived itself and its actions. The struggle to articulate the nature of international education in U.S. higher education institutions improved once it was realized that the focus should not be a thing, but a process. However, the struggle continues regarding who is to benefit from internationalization. In spite of the best arguments put forth by advocates, in high and low positions, internationalization has become a priority in U.S. higher education based on factors internal and external to the institution but related to more survival of the institution and its core mission.

Keywords: international education, advocacy, leadership, organizations, internationalization, higher education

Thomas Jefferson “advocated public higher education to foster an informed citizenry and also as an investment in the nation’s economic future” (Hunt, 2006, para. 1). In a speech on Educational Leadership for the 21st Century, James B. Hunt, former governor of North Carolina, makes a point about how a quantity change the way an organization responds to it. He described how returning GIs from WWII, who took advantage of the GI Bill to study for college degrees, changed how higher education functioned. Formerly the preserve of children of the wealthy, higher education enrollment doubled in size by 1950 to 2.7 million (Hunt, 2006). In 2010, the enrollment is nearing 20 million.

With respect to higher education in the past fifty years, quantity has forced institutions to recognize the value of international education. Although advocates of international education have sought change based on philosophical and social arguments, it has been quantity, or the threat of loss of that quantity that has bolstered their arguments.

In the past 60 years there have been substantial changes in international students studying in the U.S. and domestic students studying abroad. According to *Open Doors* (IIE, 2001) in 1950 the number of international students studying in the U.S. was a scant 26,000. By 2010 their numbers increased substantially to 690,000. Their percentage of the total enrollment in U.S. higher education increased from 1.1% to 3.5% during that same period. For domestic students studying abroad the numbers quadrupled from 65,000 in 1989 to 260,000 in 2008. Such changes have increased the attention to the international dimension of education by higher education institutions.

These numbers alone do not represent the full scope of internationalization, but they do draw attention to the issues. Over the past 50 years there have been continual attempts to lead U.S. higher education institutions (HEIs) into recognizing the value of international education by adopting or engaging in the concept of internationalization for the campus. Leaders have used methods such as, articulating the message(s), publishing research or other forms of communication; holding conferences,

colloquia, workshops; collaborating with each other; developing and disseminating methods other could use to advance the idea; conducting letter writing campaigns to sway decision makers in a state legislature or the U.S. Congress. Thus, leadership for truly internationalized HEIs can be characterized as multifaceted, replete with competition, cooperation, alliances, shining examples, and individual excellence.

When and from where did U.S. higher education institutions obtain the readiness to make specific institutional responses to internationalization? What forces were involved in leading institutions to this readiness? Who were the actors that articulated the need for such action? This paper will look at the interplay between individuals, organizations, and ideas for the international dimension as arguments are articulated by stakeholders, leaders, and advocates. At the core, we want to determine in what forms the leadership emerged for internationalization in U.S. institutions of higher education.

STAKEHOLDERS AND ADVOCATES

In the broad sense stakeholders of international education are those individuals and organizations who are involved in or may be affected positively or negatively from actions related to it. However, it must be realized that stakeholders at the HEI level vary from institution to institution. Rather than identify the differences of each institution, for the purposes of this paper, I will assume there is more similarity than difference. I have divided stakeholders into four categories:

Higher education institution decision makers: At the center of one finds higher education institution trustees, and administrators: those in the upper levels of administration, such as deans, provost level, and presidents, as well in some cases, program directors. They have decision making power to initiate and advance ideas, and programs, make policies, and to allocate resources.

Individuals are: (1) those who are *practitioners*, those staff and some faculty who directly engage face to face with incoming students from other countries, or outgoing U.S. students seeking

study abroad, as well as admissions personnel, language program teachers, and organizers of college and community based programs related to incoming and outgoing students; (2) *faculty* who have experiences in travel, research, teaching or are originally from another country and whose work or personal views support international education; and (3) *beneficiaries* which include faculty, students, and parents.

Government Groups are: (1) U.S. government law making bodies for the federal, state, and local governments; (2) U.S. government agencies, departments, task forces, and commissions, and (3) international governing organizations, such as the UN and World Bank.

Organizations are: (1) foundations providing grants and other support to international education; (2) non-governmental organizations, for example, Academy for Educational Development, and (3) professional associations and organizations, as well as alliances of those organizations, and (4) within the HEI organization certain academic programs, projects, and institutes.

Advocates

Advocates are individuals, or groups speaking on behalf of its members, who seek policies and programs beneficial to international education. Advocates may be found in any of the stakeholders categories. They are a wide range of people who represent themselves as individuals, researchers, faculty students, professionals, politicians, as well as those who represent organizations; governmental and non-governmental. Advocates seek collaborators who agree with and often foster the ideals of the advocates. As such, collaborators can be found in higher education administration and governmental bodies. Advocates may have philosophical, social, political or economic motives. Primarily this paper will identify a few significant individual and organizational advocates.

LEADERSHIP

Leaders are not just individuals but may be organizations or associations. Leadership can

involve responding to events or crises, or initiating actions, disseminating information, and influencing through ideas. Barker (2002) suggests that leadership is not so hierarchical as often assumed, personified as the proverbial captain of the ship; but includes many other external and internal factors as the ship sails through the waters. In this way, leadership for internationalization is a “process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task” (Chemers, 1997, p. 2). Organizations consist of people and individuals that act on behalf of their members, usually with the concurrence of the membership. These two views of leadership allow individuals as well as organizations, and coalitions, to function as leaders. In the cause of internationalization, the quest by stakeholders for information, ideas, and leadership at various points in time have allowed different advocates to contribute as leaders in the face of events and conditions.

Figure 1 shows sources for leadership in internationalizing U.S. higher education institutions. Similar to the stakeholders and advocates these categories indicate that individuals, organizations, corporations, and governments could potentially play leadership roles. Each have in their own way contributed to internationalization. To see how these sources functioned we need to trace the lineage of international education.

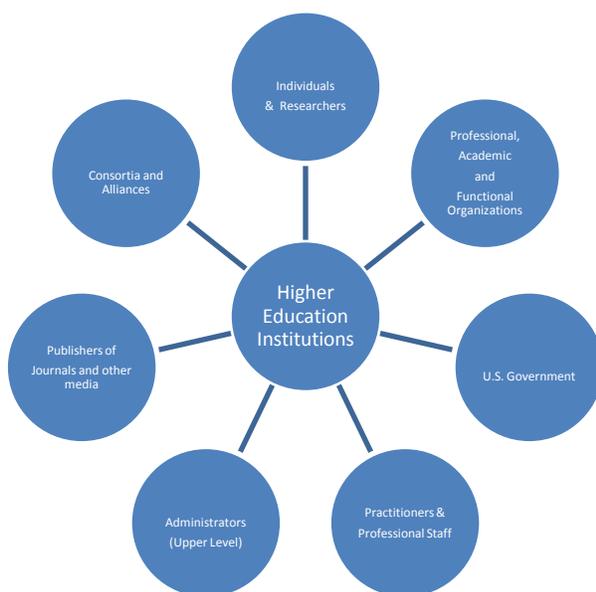


Figure 1. Contributions to Leadership Impacting U.S. Institutions of Higher Education

PERCEPTION OF THE U.S. GOVERNMENT AS A LEADER OF INTERNATIONALIZATION

Advocates have sought the support of the U.S. government by calling upon it to establish policies, programs, and initiatives as a way to bring international education to the attention of decision makers in HEIs. Advocacy for internationalization also emerged from a mix of government actions, positive and negative.

Leading HEIs to internationalize spans the spectrum of arguments from philosophical positions to economic gain. The U.S. Government role in leading the internationalization of U.S. higher education is often characterized as providing grants and scholarship monies to programs. This provides incentives and motivation, but, has not resulted in an overall policy on international education. The best that advocates have been able to obtain are separate initiatives by government departments and bureaus. For example, a collaboration of the U.S. Departments of State and Education declared an International Education Week (IEW) each year since 2000. It was not a result of the events of 9/11, but its effects since 9/11 have been positive ones (State, 2011a). IEW has served as an affirmation of the value of programs that, “prepare Americans for a global environment and attract future leaders from abroad to study, learn, and exchange experiences in the United States.” (State, 2011a, para.1). In addition, over the years the Department of State has funded Overseas Advising Centers in many countries (State, 2011b). And, most recently in 2005, the Department of State, Bureau of International Information Programs established an e-journal which describes college and university education in the United States (Seidenstricker, 2005).

These initiatives and others by the U.S. government show attention to the international dimension of education, but to advocates, an international education policy statement, the gold standard, has not yet been established. In 2007, as a guideline to influence decision

makers and to make its members and affiliates aware of the needs, the professional organization, NAFSA: Association of International Educators (NAFSA) drafted a statement entitled, *An International Education Policy for U.S. Leadership, Competitiveness, and Security*. It identified rationales and proposed components of such a policy (NAFSA, 2007). Still, there is no policy.

Professional organizations continue to advocate for such an overall national policy on international education. Although the U.S. government supports actions that are related to international education, most often its actions have been to support foreign policy objectives, such as in the Cold War era, and now in the post 9/11 era. In addition, the government must respond to a variety of criticisms mostly related to immigration issues or in the case of higher education, intrusion into the goals and objectives of academe.

Since the close of World War II, there have been attempts to motivate HEIs toward internationalization. With the exception of the Fulbright-Hays Act establishing the Fulbright Exchange program, its actions were not specific to cause internationalization. Rather the U.S. government provided a backdrop from which change could occur. One change was that the soldiers returning from WWII had new, international, experiences and a world view that increased the vitality of the classroom (Hunt, 2006). As will be shown, in spite of U.S. government actions, what makes leadership in international education difficult to pin down is that leadership does not come from a singular champion, but from a complex interaction of forces, factors, and actors which ebb and flow, marked by different degrees of strength.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1966: A BEGINNING

According to the Coalition for International Education, the programs of The Higher Education Act of 1965 (Pub. L. No. 89-329), (HEA 1965) and Fulbright-Hays programs (Pub.L. 87-256, 75 Stat. 527, 1961), “have served as the foundation for the internationalization of higher education in the United States....(and).... have enhanced the body

of knowledge about foreign languages and area studies” (Council, 2007 p. 1).

The concept of international education for the United States emerged from WWII and the Korea War with a realization that the rest of the world had not developed the capacity to manage change. One might have said that the push toward internationalization in higher education came with the passage of the Fulbright Act of 1946 and later consolidated into the Fulbright-Hays Act of 1961 known as the Mutual Educational and Cultural Exchange Program. While these programs paved the way for students from other nations to attend universities and colleges in the U.S., they did not automatically create an internationalized institution. In 1961 international education had not been considered by policy makers or universities as a core part of U.S. higher education. Thus, advocates for internationalization continued seeking validation for the view that international education should be seen as a core part of U.S. higher education.

Recognition of international education as a major component of the educational community occurred at the time the Cold War was becoming an increasingly competitive arena. The U.S. government promoted programs to combat the spread of communism abroad and it often called upon the expertise of those in academia. The most expansive initiative came in the aftermath of John F. Kennedy’s assassination. It was then that President Lyndon B. Johnson began a series legislative initiatives known as the ‘Great Society.’

With the leadership of President Lyndon B. Johnson, the Great Society legislation began a path towards establishing international education as an educational goal. President Johnson first began with the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Higher Education Act of 1965. These Acts coupled the women’s rights movements and the War on Poverty and led to an increase in the number of women, minorities, and low income students attending college. In the ideal of the time it was a college degree that would enhance the opportunity for a good job. In addition, the

HEA 1965, "...expanded the opportunities for growth by individuals and institutions. Title IV became a key program for students of all racial and ethnic backgrounds or economic circumstances" (Kinzie, Jillian, et al., 2004, p. 16).

The International Education Act of 1966 (IEA 1966) appears to have been a third component of the Great Society legislation that President Johnson sought. Having achieved legislation for domestic purposes, and recognizing that the Cold War was a continual source of concern, President Johnson recognized the need to expand legislation that would achieve benefits for the U.S. and other nations. He provided the most visible and highest place in the government from which support for international education could be launched. President Johnson commented that "we must review and renew the purpose of our programs for international education" and called for implementation of a sweeping policy which included the following (HR 14643, president Johnson's message on international education, pp. 16-22):

1. *To strengthen our capacity for international educational cooperation,*
2. *To stimulate exchange with the students and teachers of other lands,*
3. *To assist the progress of education in developing nations,*
4. *To build new bridges of international understanding.*

To this degree, the IEA 1966 could be seen as an educational and political as well as a moral response to the Cold War.

International Education Act of 1966 was bolstered by a series of hearings and documentary supports of the Task Force on International Education (HR14643, 1966), and the Senate Hearings (Senate, U.S. 2874, 1966). The support for international education in Congress was strong in 1966. This was evident in the papers submitted and testimony given in the House and Senate. A Supplement to HR 14643 was a compendium of readings gathered under the leadership of the Honorable John Brademas chair of the Task Force on International Education. He was an ardent supporter for international education and who later became president of New York University.

The Supplement was formally was entitled, *International Education: Past, Present, Problems and Prospects*.

The supplement reviewed the value of the international dimension of education. To Brademas, the IEA 1966 was aimed at "strengthening the resources of American colleges and universities in international studies and research.....to teach and conduct research about foreign lands and world problems" (HR14643: International Education, 1966, remarks of John Brademas, Chairman, p. ix).

In the Supplement Stephen K. Bailey identified the many aspects of international education and acknowledged that the broad scope of international education included: 'non-American substance' of curriculums, education for students from abroad, American students studying abroad, development education, professional training for careers in international service, and a goal to educate citizens of their world responsibilities as individuals and leaders using such terms as civic understanding and informed leadership (HR14643: International Education, 1966, paper of Stephen K. Bailey). Also, as Bailey acknowledged the 'vague, ambiguous, and multifaceted,' (p. 2) nature of international education, he suggested not only that universities contained many dimensions of international education that needed to be organized...but that external forces to the universities must also play a role.

We are doing far too little to orient man to his global context; and what we do along these lines is frequently misguided, misplaced, or woefully short of the mark....the essential educational burden here is in the hands of our political leaders; but this must be buttressed by extraordinary educational efforts on the part of the mass media and civic and professional organizations across the land-and beyond (HR14643: International Education, 1966, paper of Stephen K. Bailey, p. 7).¹

The sixty-nine articles of the Supplement came from institutional leaders, faculty experts, practitioners, and professional and community organizations. These were divided into six major topics that affected higher education:

world affairs, internationalization of the curriculum, educational exchanges, and education for development. The remaining two addressed the relationship between government and higher education institutions, and some thinking on the future. All of the articles were identified by Brademas for their strong analysis of the needs, prospects, and barriers to international education, but on the whole supported the concept. The audience of the Supplement was members of Congress as well as faculty and administrators of higher education institutions. Yet, the worries and concerns of that time also serve as a reminder of our current vulnerabilities. For example, the current generation's view of international education has been affected by improved means of communication, increased numbers of publications, and use advanced technology to communicate and receive ideas which have changed perceptions of how the world works.

In the context of LBJ's leadership, Bailey (1966) referred to international education as "a burden to fall on the political leaders" (p. 7). This idea has remained a barrier for both advocates and the government. The concept of international education as described in the Supplement was primarily one of the U.S. government providing incentives and guidance for expanding the higher education curriculum as it related to policies and needs for the nation's foreign activities. This included infusing world affairs, non-western studies and views, area studies, language instruction and study, improving teaching resources, library resources, and engaging in new research abroad. With respect to the IEA 1966, if it had not been for the conflict in Vietnam, the adoption of the International Education Act of 1966 would have completed a trilogy of legislation designed to change the face of American society. The IEA 1966 was passed by the House and Senate but died in the in the appropriation committee. Since it was never funded as a complete concept, we are left to wonder how the leadership and policies of the government would have ultimately been received by higher education.

In 1966, higher education institutions were not considered as organizations that should become internationalized rather, institutional components or dimensions should form a

synergy to reach needed goals for society, such as a competent citizenry (Lewis, 2009). The pantheon of international education included activities of educational exchange, incoming and outgoing students, scholars, and faculty. Although the 'Me' generation is emerging as a force or rationale for international education for themselves, for the institution, the elements are also forming that could lead to this result.

Effects of Great Society Legislation on Internationalization

A result of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Higher Education Act of 1965, is that enrollment in HEIs continued to expand. When looking at the increases in numbers of domestic and international students between 1976 and 1997, one might say that internationalization is all about numbers of students. As we will see later in the paper, that may be perceived as the case. But, numbers in themselves do not necessarily pave the way for changes in the core of the university mission.

In Table 1, it can be seen that between 1976 and 1997, the number of students from all categories increased from 10.9 to 14.3 million. In terms of international students, Berendzen remarked in 1982 that "the number of foreign students in the United States could climb ...to one million by the end of this century..." (Goodwin and Nacht, 1983 p. iii). The Table below shows that as international students increased to 461,345 nearing the end of the millennium, far below predictions, and perhaps even, hopes. This table also obscures the rates of increase and decrease that varied from year to year.

Table 1
Enrollment in Colleges and Universities, 1976 & 1997. (in thousands)

Year	1976	1997
White non Hispanic	9,076.10	10,160.90
Black non-Hispanic	1,033.00	1,532.80
Hispanic	383.8	1,200.10
Asian and Pacific Islander	197.9	851.5
American Indian and Alaskan Native	76.1	138.8
Non-resident Alien	218.7	461.3

Total	10,985.60	14,345.40
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Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Higher Education General Information Survey (HEGIS), “Fall Enrollment in Colleges and Universities” surveys, and Integrated Postsecondary Educational Data System (IPEDS), “Fall Enrollment” surveys. *Digest of Education Statistics* 1999, Table 209.

Advocates sought an institution where there was general agreement that international education and the international dimensions were considered valuable and intrinsic components of the university. The use of quantity to denote importance, in some ways a cultural notion, was reflected in the reaction to the increase in numbers of students. Advocates pointed to such increases as indicators of the need for institutional leaders, faculty, and staff to allocate more attention and resources to activities involving international education. As the Great Society legislation set the stage for increases in demand for study abroad, there continued to be concerns regarding foreign students. From 1976 to 1997 even though there were rising enrollments, there were also changes occurring in the pool of high school students available to attend college. “The populations of young adults has fluctuated in size over the past three decades, increasing in the 1970s (as the baby boomers reached college age) and declining in the 1980s and early 1990s” (Hudson, 2002, p. 16). This will become important when we discuss what forces affected HEIs views and action on internationalization.

Competing and Facilitating Arguments

For all of the initiatives, research, data, and feedback obtained since the 1960s, HEIs have been challenged by attempts to expand international education and internationalization. Competing concepts and ideas force institutions to develop their responses to global competitive challenges (Currie, 1998; Williams, 2003; Hugonnier, 2007). Internationalization is not incompatible with the concept of public good or of market liberalism, but the application of the concepts play a role in how internationalized the institution is perceived or perceives itself. These

driving forces are briefly described here.

Public Good: In the argument of the purpose for higher education institutions, the public good is a long held concept. In this context, American institutions of higher education were founded on the concept of public service (London, 2003). That is, graduates will be more civic minded, engage in social responsibility, to educate individuals to their moral responsibility, in some ways exhibit a civitas. One university expressed its vision as “Serving the public good in these ways pervades our daily decision making and connects us not just with our immediate community, but with communities throughout the world” (Cantor, 2011 (para. 3)). The public good concept fosters the idea that education should provide the individual with a broad set of knowledge and intellectual skills that he/she may apply to ‘real’ world activities. The public good concept is reflected in the HR 16423 Supplement that suggested institutions should adhere more to the liberal education interpretation of the purpose of higher education. Even though the *public good* is a well known approach, its current competitive approach is known as Neoliberalism, or market liberalism.

Neoliberal Approach: The neoliberal approach has been applied to many aspects of the global economy and is seen as a tool for assisting developing nations improve their educational systems (Treanor, 2011). For our purposes here, in the *neoliberal* approach, the institution must consider how the *market* for higher education places the institution in a more or less competitive advantage for enrollment, resources, and prestige. The concept spans a myriad of reforms from the Reagan presidency to the present. Its basic tenet emphasizes a *free market* approach economic policy; also known as *market liberalism*. What is important to this paper is the effect on educational policy and practice. Various intergovernmental organizations developed policies which support the market liberalism approach, such as The International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). They impose policies focused on reducing labor costs, reducing public expenditures and making work more flexible in the education sector (Bourdieu, 1998).

Lingard and Rizvi (1998) explain that market liberalism creates a new managerialism that is focused on a leaner and more competitive state among the nation states. They further explain that international organizations such as the IMF and the OECD serve as serve as an “institutionalizing mechanism for the idea of an integrated global economy underpinned by the ideology of market liberalism” (p. 271). Further, this view has now been adopted by managers, organizations, and universities, and has been integrated into higher education policies in many nations. The OECD has affected the educational policies of large and small nations in encouraging global flows of people, information, and ideology.

Other writers found that the realities of the market impacted higher education and saw the emerging technologies and for-profit/virtual institutions among important factors institutional leaders needed to consider, as well as a deep consideration of the *'public purposes of higher education'* (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004). Another writer alludes to the idea that it is one thing to frame the behavior of HEIs as entrepreneurial and another to say the goal of HEIs should be entrepreneurial or driven by a profit goal. For HEIs, sitting back and thinking becomes expensive unless it produces profit or other value for the institution (Williams, 2003). Rather than acquiring knowledge as a general guide for life decisions, HEIs have undergone a conceptual shift and are now pressured by various stakeholders to focus their learning on skills needed in the workforce (Singh, 2001).

In addition, Dill explores the increasing tendency of HEIs to resort to a market approach. “The overt rationale for these reforms is not only the traditional argument of economic efficiency—with its supposed corollary benefits of institutional adaption and innovation—but increase a resort to market competition as a means of achieving equity in the form of mass higher education” (Dill, 1997 para. 1).

The failure of the IEA1966 to secure funding from Congress stung many advocates for international education. As a result there continued to be calls for the U.S. government to step up its support, such as a prominent effort by Kerr and Burns with foundation support through the Carnegie Commission articulating a

reasonable call for action. However, in 1981 after the election of Ronald Reagan, with his tendency toward market liberalism, there began a contentious series of governmental debates on foreign policy issues. One of these was an effort by the Reagan administration to cut the funding for the Fulbright program. International education advocates pounced on this move by orchestrating a campaign to restore the proposed cuts (Cummings, 2004) resulting in an alliance of many professional organizations, former Fulbright Scholars, and educators, to restore the proposed cuts. This action and others like it led to the strengthening of stakeholders, and particularly, advocates for international education.

Institutional actions are affected by the traditional public good arguments and the emerging competition of the global market place for not only the *best and brightest minds*, but minds whose presence supports the institution as a viable organizational entity. Advocates have used both *public good* and *market liberalism* arguments to advance internationalization.

ADVOCATES

Politics could be a fulcrum to galvanize and mobilize advocates. For example, the *public good* was the general perspective of advocates for international education in 1980. This was expressed by Clark Kerr in his introduction to the Barbara Burn book, *Expanding the International Dimension of Higher Education*:

We strongly believe that the federal government should make firm commitments to support programs that stimulate international scholarship, foreign-language studies, exchange of students and faculty members among the nations, and cultivation of intellectual, technical, and creative resources on the nation's campuses that will facilitate American assistance and participation in cooperative efforts in other parts of the world. But, the commitments must be more than an articulation of intentions (Burn, 1980, p. xxxv).

Government contracts and funds from foundations remained important to enable

stakeholders to meet and review strategies and ideas. In 1967, a Wingspread Colloquium was sponsored by the Council of Graduate Schools, along with such professional organizations as AACRAO, CEEB, IIE, and NAFSA. There was hope for a benign government leadership, but at the same time, with the reality of the Vietnam War, these professional organizations began to consider an independence from U.S. Government guidance, while at the same time, allowing recognition of the role of government and foundation funds in supporting a variety of lines of beneficial research, many of which used foreign locations. This tension between independence and external funding is one of the most difficult issues to resolve between the universities and funding sources. Albert G. Sims, vice-president of the CEEB, expressed it this way, "...no institution can maintain the independence necessary for research and for the ordering of knowledge about the total society and at the same time be engaged in social and political action" (Sims, 1969, p. 52).

After the loss of IEA 1966, government leadership for international education was now a questionable notion. Establishing international education as a priority in U.S. higher education institutions left advocates looking for other means. Burn suggested that the U.S. government could not really represent U.S. higher education in the way systems do in other countries. The lack of federal jurisdiction over U.S. higher education meant that there would be continued competition between colleges, professional organizations and federal agencies regarding international educational exchange (Burn, 1980, p. 151).

It was obtaining a place at the institutional table, to be included in the conversation on institutional priorities that now motivated advocates and practitioners, with the support of their professional organizations and foundations to seek an internationalized university. However, advocates also perceived government support as a symbol of importance. Through the leadership, guidance, or largess of the government advocates thought they might have a stronger rationale within the higher education institutions in discussing the institutional priorities related to international education. While the practitioners' battle on for recognition

on campus continued, professional organizations fought for independence from government requirements limiting their ability to advocate.

In the 1980s, NAFSA was one of the professional organizations that derived a significant portion of its operating budget from the U.S. government. But it also perceived itself as advocating with Congressional leaders on behalf, and with the support of its members. For example, audits by USAID would entail review of advocacy practices that the government deemed lobbying, an act that was prohibited by government contractors. As a result, by the mid-90's NAFSA had implemented a series of actions in which the percentage of government support was significantly reduced. This action allowed NAFSA to emerge as one of the most vocal advocates for international education. It's positions, that initially focused on how practitioners navigate the U.S. government regulations on behalf of higher education institutions, expanded to include the governmental programs and policies on visas as well as governmental support for internationalization of the colleges and universities.

Over the years collaboration between government policy makers, their agencies and departments and all levels of advocates was often achieved in tandem with private foundation support, grants to professional organizations, and grants to practitioners through professional organizations. In addition, collaborative sponsorship with other stakeholders resulted in colloquia, task forces, commissions, and research projects. The interaction between these stakeholders led to new understandings about international education, and the role each stakeholder played. It also led to the establishment of alliances.

Also important to advocates was the identification and cultivation of well placed individuals who had a propensity to support international education. For example, Ernest L. Boyer, when he held the position of U.S. Commissioner of Education in the Carter administration, supported international and global education by seeing that a Presidential Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies was established in 1978. More recently, the late Senator Paul Simon

played the role as the high placed advocate. As opposed to establishing laws for higher education institutions to follow, the key pieces of the governmental approach was to provide funding to government departments, as well as non-governmental organizations, endowments, and foundations to facilitate the exchange of faculty and students for educational purposes. These organizations provided a core of educational exchange that HEIs could not provide for themselves (Burn, 1980, p. xxxv).

Other types of advocates not directly associated with higher education institutions, were the community based World Affairs Councils and the National Council for International Visitors. The former relied on discussion groups to form opinions about the current state of foreign affairs, and where appropriate contact their Congressmen to make their views known. The members of the latter organization typically included well educated families who sought to host international visitors in their homes, most often as an educational tool for their children. This activity served as a highly popular public diplomacy, or *citizen diplomacy* tool recognized by the federal government, but was also embraced by the organization and its members (Mueller, 2008).

For advocates, the IEA 1966 made clear that there was a tension between the desire to jump start internationalization through governmental funding and the goals of the HEIs which would be implementing the programs. In addition, public diplomacy served as an example that the U.S. government promoted its own foreign policy objectives through programs it organized and supported. To this degree the faculty and administrators of HEIs were somewhat wary of government policies and programs usurping the goals of higher education. Advocates continually promoted the U.S. government as an important symbol of validity for international education. Still, in the HEI faculty were more concerned with the intellectual value and public good of the government programs, and with the status of utilizing their knowledge to benefit the public good through guiding decision makers and program initiatives to reasoned outcomes.

The Leadership Role of Research and Publications as Advocates

The leadership sources identified in Figure 1 have employed a variety of methods to promote internationalization in higher education; for example, concepts and ideas, organizational change, advocacy, research and publication, resources, policies, individual effort, collaboration, and competition. Observation tells us that leadership for internationalization is shared through collaboration and agreements. But we also know that individual research and other factors prompt leaders to act.

By the late 70s, advocates found a need for improved research to bolster their arguments for international education, for improved information, better avenues of dissemination, and an informed public. Research conducted by faculty, practitioners, and other advocates played a role in advancing international education and internationalization. Professional organizations and their members saw the need for competent research on international education to be conducted and reported by faculty. It was thought that the U.S. Government should take the lead in fostering international education. When the government did not take this role, foundations, such as Carnegie, Ford, Sloan, Guggenheim and others took the lead by enabling professional organizations to sponsor research and data gathering. In this way the Institution of International Education took the lead, supported by foundations, to make the case for internationalization using data collected from institutions, and through research reports it commissioned and published, such as Goodwin and Nacht (1983).

Research conducted by individuals under the sponsorship of professional organizations, U.S. government departments, or for academic reasons played important parts in advancing international education and internationalization. In this sense they led the way to internationalization through their research conclusions, collecting and analyzing data, and developing the means to communicate observations about and the needs of international education played an important role in making the case for the value of international education. From an advocate point of view, research was a way to gain attention and to keep the conversation going in an academic institution. It was thought that the value of international

education would deteriorate without such research leading the way. Research and scholars have highlighted key issue in the movement toward internationalization. A few are presented here.

Under the leadership of NAFSA, which had a contract with United States Agency for International Development (USAID), a research study was commissioned in 1978. The *Needs of Foreign Students from Developing Nations at U.S. Colleges and Universities* (Lee, 1981). This provided an example of a continued collaboration between the U.S. government departments and professional organizations to support U.S. institutions in their need to understand the experience of foreign students. Although sponsored by USAID and centered on their sponsored students, the importance of the research went beyond just this group. It is an example of an effort to push international education in terms of responsibilities that U.S. institutions have when accepting them for study. It suggested that not just government sponsored students had special needs, but all international students should be treated in a way that would make their academic, social, and cultural adjustments successful.

Absence of Decision by Goodwin and Nacht, (1983) was another widely disseminated tract published by the Institute of International Education (IIE) and supported by a grant from the Carnegie Mellon Foundation. IIE followed this publication with others such as, *Mentors and Supervisors: Doctoral Advising of Foreign and U.S. Graduate Students* (Friedman, 1987); *The Foreign Student Factor: Impact on American Higher Education* (Solomon, Lewis C.; Young, Betty J., 1987); and *Student Views of Graduate Engineering Education: U.S. and Foreign Student Views of Graduate Engineering Education* (Barber, Elinor G.; Morgan, Robert P.; and Darby, William P., 1990).

The conclusions reached by Goodwin and Nacht (1983, p.40) that are relevant to this paper include:

- 1) *the issue of foreign students was low on the list of administrators' priorities;*
- 2) *managing large numbers of foreign students was not well thought through;*

- 3) *there emerged three categories of responses to the presence of foreign students on respondent campuses:*
 - a) *those who felt enriched by their presence,*
 - b) *those who saw foreign students as a temporary phenomena to sustain programs during a decline in U.S. student enrollment, and*
 - c) *those who saw foreign students as a drain on campus, local, and national resources;*
- 4) *the marginal costs were not understood.*

With Goodwin and Nacht, the focus was on the institutional response to the presence of international students. Subsequent IIE and other publications focused on questions of expanding the perception of international education in ways it affected beneficiaries, particularly study abroad for a diverse Americans (Nasr, Karim, et al., 2002; IIE 2007 & 2009). In addition, programs for engineers to study abroad are now supported by such institutions as the University of Michigan, Stanford, UC Berkeley, the University of Tennessee, and Texas A&M University. Major professional organizations, such as CIEE offer programs for students with STEM majors.

These research initiatives were important to advocates. The research began to help identify what should be included in international education. In the late 1980's, Dr. Maurice Harari spoke at a conference of the professional organization, NAFSA, in which he identified which elements and actions would be needed within the institution. This approach was supported by other practitioners and researchers of that time, such as Stephen Arum and Jack Van de Water (Dutschke, 2009). Harari said:

International education must encompass not only the curriculum, international exchanges of scholars and students, cooperative programs with the community, training, and a wide array of administrative services, but also a 'distinct commitment,' attitudes, global awareness, and orientation and dimension which transcends the entire institution and shapes its ethos. (Harari, 1989, p. 111)

Stakeholders and advocates up to this time had focused on defining international education in its dimensions or components. They felt a need to bring the components together. Harari helped move the argument forward by clarifying that leadership should come from the 'commitment' of institutional leaders. Still, up to this time, international education was seen as something that was initiated by administrators and decision makers. While Harari was providing a definition of what international education meant, researchers on educational exchange mobility as a world-wide phenomenon began to consider its meaning.

Harari focused stakeholder attention on the parameters of international education. The next point in the evolution of our understanding was proposed by Dr. Jane Knight, a Canadian and faculty member at the University of Toronto. Her definition moved our understanding from elements and outcomes as ends of international education to a view of elements and outcomes as part of a *process*. Knight's (2008) work with the International Association of Universities has resulted in important research findings on perceptions of institutions on each continent about the nature of the benefits and problems of international education. That process is known as internationalization. Knight's (2003) definition has become the most widely used expression for internationalization. In addition, the definition was further augmented by a description of how that process may be made a reality. Knight and de Wit provided leadership for this definition by their consultations with organizations and higher education institutions around the world, as well as through their research and publications. Individually and together they assessed international education and the process of internationalization in Canada, Europe, the United States, Africa, and in Latin America for example, their work with others entitled, *Higher Education in Latin America: The International Dimension* (de Wit, et al. 2005).

As a result of these consultations, Hans de Wit has been a major force in the field on a several fronts. His *Internationalisation of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe* in 2002 has proved prescient in the post 9/11 world (De Wit, 2002).

It articulated the scope and character of international education and provided an analysis of related research and models. Seeing that the field of international education lacked a journal addressing issues of internationalization, he assumed the role as editor of the *Journal of Studies of International Education*, <http://jsi.sagepub.com/>. It has emerged as the pre-eminent journal for the field.

In addition, publishers have played a role in promoting internationalization. Sage Publications is well known for its focus publication of works dealing with international education, as is Routledge Publications. The Intercultural Press played a seminal role from the 80s by publishing works to clarify and guide practitioners and corporations in their interactions with the culturally different.

By the early 1990s technology and the potential of electronic communication was beginning to emerge. From 1990 to 2002 nine new publications were established with a focus on international education. All were widely disseminated or easily discoverable as on-line as search engines improved, and as more and more data was put on websites on the Internet. The emergence of these publications during this period showed the need for information, research, and observations about international education. They are substantive, broad in scope, well read, and originally in print but moving to an on-line publication format (Smithee, 2011b). The date in the parenthesis indicates the year the publication began.

The first four journals are peer reviewed:

1. Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad (1995) on-line
2. Journal of Studies in International Education (1997) [JSIE]
3. International Journal of Multicultural Education (1999)
4. Journal of Research in International Education (2002) [JRIE]

The following five journals/magazines are in print on the Internet, or both.

5. World Education News and Reviews (United States) (1988) on-line

6. International Educator (1992) print
7. International Higher Education (1995) print and on-line
8. IENetworker (2001) print to on-line
9. Education Travel Magazine (UK) (2002) on-line

ORGANIZATIONS MOBILIZED TO ADVOCATE FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION

Professional Associations and Organizations as Advocates

Professional organizations, whose members include practitioners and advocates, as well as stakeholders of other types, have played a strong role in advancing internationalization in higher education. Institutional professional organizations such as, the American Council on Education (ACE), began developing its approach to internationalization in recognition of the need for institutions to find a transformative process for it. As the premiere organization for higher education in the U.S., it was able to articulate and publish guidelines on internationalization processes between 2000-2002 which led to the establishment of the *internationalization laboratory* (ACE, 2008b).

The laboratory provided recognition at the highest levels of the value of international education. On a year by year basis, institutions were selected through their application for participation in the laboratory. One criteria was for top leaders and other stakeholders within the higher education institution, plus those who might be affected by decisions, was to assess institutional readiness for internationalization. Then ACE would help this process by providing consultations and feedback. Once supported by a wide array of the stakeholders in the institution, who had engaged in conversations about internationalization, top level administrators could recognize and support the value of internationalization. Then it stood a chance of becoming a broader action item within the institution.

Another institutional organization, the International Association of Universities (IAU), has played a very strong role in international

education and internationalization. In its own words, “The International Association of Universities, founded to promote international cooperation among higher education institutions, notes that despite the universality of knowledge which has always served to affirm the international nature of higher education, the level of internationalization remains low and uneven” <http://www.iau-aiu.net/content/other-statements>. To evaluate their concern, the IAU conducted a *Global Survey on the International Dimension of Higher Education*. The results showed that institutions in different contents have differing priorities, concerns, and perceived risks when engaging in international education. The 2003 and 2005 surveys were analyzed for IAU by Jane Knight. Most recently, IAU convened a panel of experts to publish *Rethink(ing) the internationalization process and practices* (IAU, 2011).

One of the most widely known functional organizations is NAFSA: Association of International Educators, <http://www.nafsa.org>. It is a U.S. based organization with a world-wide membership, representing a wide variety of practitioners, advocates, organizations, corporations, and governments. In terms of internationalization of U.S. higher education NAFSA has a wide scope of activity. It has a coordinative approach for related associations and organizations (see Appendix A or B). Through its Simon Awards, <http://www.nafsa.org/about/default.aspx?id=16295>, it recognizes institutional models that are successful in internationalizing all or a portion of campus. In addition, the publication of the magazine *International Educator*, has served to articulate prescient topics. Their annual conference, one of the largest in the field on international education, has served to bring together a variety of people in the field for workshops, sessions, and networking. Their publications serve to support the activities of practitioners in the field. But, most recently their publication of *Comprehensive Internationalization: From Concept to Action* (Hudzik, 2011) has served to provide an articulation of conceptual leadership for the field. Increasingly NAFSA conferences have well attended sessions and workshops on curriculum and faculty development, where

twenty years ago these topics were hardly on the schedule. In addition, its publications, calls for action, and responses to a myriad of government actions affecting international education leave no stone unturned in its advocacy.

The Association of International Education Administrators (AIEA) is a functional organization whose key purpose is framed on its website: “formed in November 1982, is composed of institutional leaders engaged in advancing the international dimensions of higher education.” (AIEA, para. 1) Its members tend to be administrators whose institutions have centralized or seek to centralize some or all of the functions of the international dimension. In this way they advocate from a policy position with direct links to upper level decision makers. The AIEA has its voice heard by the government on all matters of public policy through their central office and that of their advocate members. The AIEA was a key sponsor for the establishment of *the Journal of Studies in International Education*.

The Council on International Education and Exchange (CIEE) is another functional organization. In addition to its scholarship programs for students, CIEE has focused on International Faculty Development Seminars. Their website attracts interested faculty to participate in a faculty development seminar, <http://www.ciee.org/ifds/>.

NAFSA, in a leadership role, has repeated the sensibility of the IEA1966. When it is difficult to manage change from within the institution, it looks for external sources of power to encourage, motivate, and otherwise lead institutions in a preferred direction. This worked with the Civil Rights and the Higher Education Acts in the 1960's. Academe with its academic disciplines are far too decentralized, some say ponderous, to respond quickly to external influences. However, even without U.S. government action, the message from NAFSA and various academic, professional, educational organizations continues to be sent.

Within the context of what HEIs exist for, the debate that has emerged has pitted those who maintain a purity of their curriculum within a western higher educational context and those who see the need to acknowledge that education includes knowledge of and contact with peoples

beyond our borders. In this way NAFSA and associated organizations continue to play a vital role in what NAFSA calls the public policy aspect of international education.

Like the IEA 1966, professional organizations and their alliances continue to call upon on the U.S. Government to lead higher education toward internationalization. NAFSA stated that, “the most important role for the U.S. government, however, is to enact a comprehensive national program to establish study abroad as an integral component of U.S. undergraduate education.” (NAFSA, 2007,p. 2).

Alliances, Coalitions, and Consortia

Alliances have played a role in the internationalization effort by increasing the perceived scope and value of international education. For example, organizations listed in Appendix A and B, continually promote the international education ideal through their work, advocacy, and collaboration. A successful example was the coordinated support for the Senator Paul Simon Study Abroad Foundation Act of 2009, as they worked together to convince Congressmen of its value. After years of effort, a coalition of organizations supported this Act by writing a letter to the House of Representatives in which they encouraged the funding of its provisions. (See Appendix A). In collaboration with, and support of Senator Paul Simon and others in Congress, this alliance of international education organizations was rewarded with the passage in of the Act. The Act envisioned a sweeping goal for higher education institutions.

By numbers ranging from 77 percent to more than 90 percent, Americans believe that it is important for their children to learn other languages, study abroad, attend a college where they can interact with international students, learn about other countries and cultures, and generally be prepared for a global age. Among the Act's goals is making study abroad a cornerstone of today's higher education (Simon, 2011, para. 2).

There are many educational alliances. Some are focused on a functional area, like study abroad, others on academic areas like health education. Within international education alliances focus on institution based groups, such as the MUCIA: Midwest Universities Consortium for International Activities in which case they are more properly known as consortia. Below is a description of a few of the groups of professional organizations with a focus on international education within the U.S.:

The Alliance for International Educational and Cultural Exchange, The Coalition for International Education, and the National Humanities Alliance (NHA) while focused on the humanities include strong international components. *The Alliance for International Educational and Cultural Exchange* publishes the *International Exchange Locator: A Resource Directory for Educational and Cultural Exchange*, through the support of Department of State's Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs on this important resource. Members are divided into groups reflecting their core purpose: for example, academic, au pair, camp counselor, professional training, summer work, etc., <http://www.alliance-exchange.org/about-alliance>.

The Coalition for International Education seeks promotion of global competence. As such, it brings together higher education organizations that engage in support for U.S. Department of Education programs and initiatives. The Coalition promotes consensus regarding international education, language education, and national needs by advocating its positions with policy makers in public and private sectors; and the media, cie@usglobalcompetence.org.

The National Humanities Alliance supports the advancement of *humanities education, research, preservation, and public programs as well as* scholarly and professional associations; higher education associations; organizations of museums, libraries, historical societies and state humanities councils; university-based and independent humanities research centers; and colleges and universities. It is a strong source of advocacy for the Title VI/Fulbright Hays programs, <http://www.nhalliance.org/news/funding-update-title-vi-international-education-pr.shtml>.

The foregoing discussion points to the roles of, (1) practitioners within their various higher education institutions and organizations, (2) researchers as individual advocates within their various institutions and organizations, and (3) professional organizations, speaking for their members and as a corporate entity, in leading the conversation on internationalization. They have used publications, conferences, surveys, consulting, position papers, and advocacy days in the halls of Congress. It is clear from institutional publications, in print and on the Internet that much more needs to be accomplished. A recent publication on comprehensive internationalization (Hudzik, 2011) is the latest incarnation of professional organizations' expression of the need for institutions to consider internationalization as a path for preparing students for the global market place. Written by a former higher education institution president it is another element of advocacy that seeks to convince others. In spite of these well crafted remarks on comprehensive internationalization, one wonders just how institutions respond to the changing landscape of higher education.

FORCES DIRECTING HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION LEADER'S ATTENTION TO THE INTERNATIONAL DIMENSION

In their 2008 study, *Mapping Internationalization on U.S. Campus*, ACE (2008c) shows that fewer than 50% of institutions approach internationalization in their missions, strategic plans, or assessments. Although most institutions have some type of support for internationalization, the internalization of the curriculum is not a key focus. Study abroad remains the popular method for claiming internationalization. In addition, only some institutions aid faculty in enhancing their focus on issues related to internationalization for themselves or their courses.

If one reviewed presidential messages and speeches to the faculty and staff, one would find the following: public HEI presidents rarely mention international, although they will cite certain efforts such as increasing recruitment of

international students, or outstanding programs such as pride in the agricultural work done in other nations. Private HEI presidents are typically more innovative, yet they too are cautious in their pronouncements. They have their institutional culture to account for. These messages indicate that international education is not at the core of the institution, or is too politically sensitive to publically explore (Smithee, 2011a).

Also, with the non-scientific but revealing discussions with a smattering of upper level administrators, provosts and presidents, one would find that international issues continue to take second place to these three critical issues: budgets, strategic plans, and the core mission. These concerns, especially with financial conditions, leads institutions to reevaluate practices and programs of the institution, and in times of troubles stick to what they define as their core. For internationalization to become a part of the core, there would need for a reallocation of funds, and a focus on faculty scope and depth in the international aspects of their course content and curriculum, as well as student outcomes (Smithee, 2011b). Thus, as Hudzik indicates, the entire institution should have a comprehensive plan for to incorporate the international dimension into the core (Hudzik, 2011).

Then, where do institutions find motivations and rationales to engage in international educational issues? From the 70s to the turn of the century, advocates employed a variety of methods from internal and external loci to convince decision makers in HEIs that internationalization is valuable as a way for the HEI to be responsible to the needs of students and faculty, and society. Institutions, cognizant or not of advocate reasons for internationalizing did respond to forces that promoted the value of international education. Several events and conditions led institutions to a position of recognizing the role international students and study abroad programs played in their institution; but, not so much for the public good, rather for institutional survival and status. Institutional leaders began to develop their thinking and outreach to resolve such concerns as they faced the international teaching assistant issue, the period of retrenchment, the Asian

financial crisis, and the effects of 9/11.

International Teaching Assistants: An aspect of the relationship between institution and international education was the growth in the international graduate student as teaching, research, and graduate assistants for faculty. In the classroom and laboratories international education had a subtle and growing effect in the 1980s and 90s. The institutional responsibility to the domestic students, as well as the international students was a critical part of what the IEA1966 had suggested. Though sometimes touted as internationalization, the presence of international graduate students in classrooms as teachers and teaching assistants, as research assistants for faculty, and as graduate assistants for a variety of administrative activities was not a full realization of internationalization. Yet, they were highly valued as they often worked harder than their American counterparts. Public institutions, especially, often received criticism from students, parents, and legislators for having teachers and teaching assistants who, it was claimed, couldn't speak English. This led to a readiness for many institutions to develop Teaching Assistant Orientation, Training or Development Programs (Smithee, 1990). These programs focused on assisting international TA's in their own adjustment to the U.S. but also their adjustment to the American classroom, diversity of students, pedagogy, and in some cases, English language articulation exercises (Smithee and Tice, 2009). Still, since this was a traditional element of doctoral granting universities, the value of international TAs, and its perceived internationalization effect, was often taken for granted.

Retrenchment: Even though IIE had been publishing information and data on the economic impact of international students since 1956 (email from the research division of IIE, December 2011), such an impact was not clearly seen until the higher education experienced budget difficulties of the late 80s and early 90s. Actions taken include cutbacks of staff, early retirement packages for staff and faculty, and reductions in budgets. Institutions operating in the red were severely impacted. But, even those operating in the black underwent a retrenchment process. During this period IIE and HEIs began to increasingly cite and focus on the economic

impact of international students, IIE through its publication, *Open Doors*, and HEIs individually, for example, the University of Iowa, *Profiles of International Students and Scholars, Fall Semester 2010*ⁱⁱ (OISS, 2010). Many international offices publish and distribute within their institution similar, but not so elaborate, compendiums on international students and scholars.

These budget cutbacks, cost containment, retrenchment, including a review of goals, programs consolidation and staffing cuts were recognized by continual discussion in journals and media (Thomas, 1992; Warrick, 1993; Gumpert and Pusser, 1997; Hearn, 2005). In 1992, a survey showed that 60% of the colleges were hit by cuts in operating budgets (Warrick, 1993). Such difficulties were not new to higher education. Such ebbs and flows have been seen several times over the past 50 years (Gumpert and Pusser, 1997). During this time international Education got caught up in the general campus scenario; few were spared. Yet, as the downturn of domestic college eligible students put pressures on institutions to reign in their budgets, international students were running counter to this trend. They were increasing in numbers each year. Gumpert and Pusser (1997), suggest that certain realities needed to be understood:

Contemporary initiatives designed to position higher education institutions for life after retrenchment represents the latest draw from a familiar array of initiatives that attempt to reallocate resources according to the most current administrative perceptions of political economic priorities. (Gumpert and Pusser, 1997, p.3)

In the course of this retrenchment period some institutions were faced with a new political economic reality. International students were becoming a presence and voice on campuses. This fact was brought to the attention of campus administrators, by the professional international staff, but more importantly by the international students themselves. It is at this point that the economic impact of international students begins to be more fully understood.ⁱⁱⁱ

Asian Economic Crisis: The retrenchment

crisis was followed by the Asian economic crisis beginning in late 1997. This particular crisis threatened the lifeline of many Asian students whose economies were affected by deep financial difficulties (Nanto, 1998). This crisis critically hit most Asian countries but in particular four nations whose number of students were in the top ten in HEIs: Thailand, S. Korea, Malaysia, and Japan (IIE, 2001). This was one of the earliest situations in which the U.S. Government Immigration Service and HEIs collaborated in a way that preserved the legality of international student presence and allowed other benefits. The government allowed a reduced course load and provided work permission in most cases, while the HEIs work with the students to attend classes by reducing the immediate burden of paying for their tuition bill. These steps taken by both the government and HEIs showed a new awareness of the importance of international students to the university budgets. These actions also provided more hope by practitioners that the international dimension of the university would receive more respect.

9/11 AND ITS AFTERMATH

International Students: The rising internationalization of U.S. institutions In U.S. higher education, both advocates and institutions were stunned by the events of 9/11; recognizing and quickly fearing the effects of this event on internationalization. Table 2 shows the percentage of change in international students attending U.S. HEIs. Period 1 shows a 9.8% increase, what might be considered a typical increase in the number of international students for a five year period. However, Period 1a, is a three year span in which the numbers of international student decreased by 3.6%. In the aftermath of 9/11, this decline is attributed to the concerns international students and their parents had about attending U.S. institutions, and also to impediments established by the stringent visa requirements brought on by the USA Patriot Act of 2001. However, after the implementation of SEVIS,^{iv} and the collaboration between advocates, Homeland Security, and the State Department to streamline visa processes, increased pressure on the U.S. government by

HEIs, the numbers began to rise again; but not to the level of previous periods. Mobility for educational exchange led HEIs in other parts of the world to become more active in their recruiting of students from abroad, in order to increase their international exposure. As a result, their numbers increased partly at the expense of the United States.

Table 2

Percent change in international students attending U.S. higher education institutions

Period 1		Period 1a		Period 2
%	Change	%	Change	%Change
from		from		from
1999–2000 to		2002–03 to		2005-06 to
2004–05		2004–05		2009-10
9.8		-3.6		4.63

Source: IIE. (2010). *Open Doors: Report on International Educational Exchange*. Institute of International Education.

September 11, resulted in a brief interruption of foreign student and American student mobility to and from the U.S. The percentage of the U.S. market share dropped, while the total market of educational mobility expanded. As the other nations began to increase their market share, the U.S. continued to grow in real numbers in both directions. The numbers of international students continued to increase at U.S. institutions in spite of intense visa oversight. Professional organizations and advocates railed at the burdens of the USA Patriot Act, but had no choice but to comply. The institutions which bore the organizational costs of increased responsibility of monitoring these students, also realized that the value of these students was too high to simply pull back. Institutional approaches to resolving threats to the loss of international students began to change.

In 2006, ACE published, *Students on the Move: The Future of International Students in the United States*. It summarized the changes in world-wide student mobility as it affected the United States. And, in particular put this change

in the context of 9/11. The United States, while still the leading destination for international students, is now facing greater competition from other countries. The events of September 2001 triggered the first declines in international student enrollment in U.S. institutions after more than 30 years of continuous growth (IIE, 2005). A number of factors contributed to this decline, including perceptions that it is difficult to secure visas and that the United States is unwelcoming to international students; competition from other countries; the high cost of U.S. higher education; increasing higher education capacity in countries that traditionally send a large number of students to study overseas, such as China and India; and increased anti-American sentiment around the world. (ACE, 2006)

For U.S. institutions the reduction of international students was a wakeup call. HEIs began to initiate new ways to tap the international mobility market. They increased efforts at recruitment, joint degree programs have proliferated, and branch campuses have been explored and created (Olds, 2011; Green and Koch, 2009). While this was occurring, the European nations were following up on some cross-border initiatives that resulted in the Bologna Process. U.S. perceptions indicate that through the Bologna Process there would be an increase in the international student flow to European countries (ACE, 2006). In a similar way, national policies and coordinated efforts in other nations such as Australia, Korea, Singapore for example, played a role in the strengthening the mobility of their students, and in attracting students from other nations to study at their HEIs (Marmolejo, 2011).

The involvement of ACE at the highest levels of the higher education institutions took the internationalization argument further. Could institutions be motivated by fear of loss as much as gain? ACE concluded in 2006 that, U.S. well-being is increasingly dependent on innovation and competitiveness in the global knowledge based economy. International students and scholars have historically provided a source of new talent for innovation in the United States. Although the demand for education abroad is increasing, so is the global competition for the “best and brightest.” Declines in the number of international students,

especially in the science and engineering fields so critical for innovation, will affect the ability of higher education, business, and government to engage in research and development. Additionally, international students represent an important means for strengthening U.S. cultural diplomacy around the world. (ACE, 2006)

Study Abroad Students: It is projected that by 2016 the number of enrollees in higher education could reach 20 million. In addition, the pressure on study abroad programs is expected to continue. Minority enrollment in study abroad programs is expected to increase as well (Picard, Bernardino, and Ehigiator, 2009, p. 326).

Table 3

Total Students Studying Abroad from the U.S.

Year	Total Intl Students	% increase each year
1999/00	145,590	
2001/02	160,920	11%
2002/03	174,629	9%
2004/05	205,983	18%
2006/07	241,791	17%
2008/09	260,327	8%

Source: *Open Doors*, 2010, Institution of International Education, p. 80.

However, as we have seen from the IEA 1966, passing the Act is only part one of the battle. It has taken nearly forty-five years for research, data, and pressure from increasing numbers of study abroad students and programs, as well as practitioners of study abroad programs to focus on intercultural competence. In Deardorff's work we find that one of the notions established in the IEA1966 Supplement regarding outcomes of international education has come full circle. Even though discussion of competencies was on the table in the 90s (de Wit, 2002, p. 36), Deardorff, and others, in the same way as Knight's definition of internationalization changed the conversation from *what* to *how*, brought new force and the same conversation changer to the assessment of goals and outcomes

of study abroad, not for the purpose of the market forces, but to bring to the institutions' attention that students studying abroad also learned academically viable and institutional enhancing knowledge. In this way, the competence argument runs both ways, as a public good, and an enhancement to the competitiveness of study abroad programs.

The comments by ACE in 2006 brought up to date their experiences with institutions seeking to build its internationalization capacity. It was only a few years prior that ACE began its *Internationalization Laboratory*. This approach to internationalization by a major professional organization emerged as a force. It required a significant commitment on the part of the HEI upper level administration, and other stakeholders in the institution in order to join the laboratory (ACE, 2008). At the same time NAFSA saw significant increases in its conference exhibitors from other nations, who were offering a myriad of study abroad programs, in effect, tapping into the surging interest by American students to study abroad not just in the traditional European countries, but now in Australia, Asia, and Eurasia. September 11 also brought increased attention from the IAU. In 2002 it began to survey institutional perceptions of the international dimension of higher education (IAU 2003, 2005). It is also a time that questions arose one again about the rationale for and outcome of study abroad (Deardorff, 2004). With these thoughts in mind, how did institutions, ostensibly not in the ACE internationalization laboratory, become motivated to engage in internationalization, or globalization as the term was being invoked? ^v

FORCES INSTITUTIONAL LEADERS UTILIZED TO MOTIVATE INTERNATIONALIZATION

In the context of a post-9/11 world, in terms of the international education component of the HEI's response to the neoliberal and public good perspectives, as a part of institutional survival in an increasingly competitive environment, one should ask, what visible rationales increased the international dimension? If public good didn't motivate institutions to internationalize, then

what led institutional responses to the environment in which they found themselves?

Economic Impact: The economic impact of international students began to be more seriously considered as an approach to improving university financial problems in the early 90's, although linking the financial benefits of having a strong international sector in the university (international student enrollment and study abroad programs) was a caution elaborated on in 1984 by Jack Van de Water (personal conversation, December 1, 2011). In the early 90's IIE began to identify the dollar value of international students to various states and summing this figure for the nation. Recently NAFSA prepared a report, *The Economic Benefits of International Education to the United States for the 2010-2011 Academic Year: A Statistical Analysis* (NAFSA, 2011a). Many advocates, including institutions and professional organizations now have touted these figures and this concept for a variety of purposes. Among these purposes are reports of economic impact that serve as a signal of the economic value of international students to the local and national economies. But, it could also be used for political purposes to convince legislators of reasons not to enact punitive legislation (Smithee, 1990, p. 117ff). Institutions took heed to this argument, as was shown in the previous section on retrenchment and the Asian Economic Crisis.

Prestige: There has typically been a perceived pecking order of higher education institutions. Yet, with the advent of market liberalism, HEIs were not immune to obtaining a competitive edge in the perceptions of those in academia as well as those external to academia. O'Meara (2007) suggests that institutions seek to 'emulate upward.' That is institutions seek to be like other institutions that are more highly ranked or are perceived as having a high reputation. Alumni, especially those that donate to the institution, potential students, and faculty wish to have their institution perceived as having high value.

According to O'Meara institutions strive for prestige. Along these lines institutions fall into three categories of activities that administrators focus on: Reputation Building, Prestige-Seeking, and Prestige. In *Reputation Building* institutions

adopt strategies that improve the curriculum to meet the needs of the market shifts and customer preferences. *Prestige-Seeking* institutions invest in activities and programs to enhance prestige, such as athletics, faculty research, and merit scholarships. For already *Prestigious* institutions, the goal is to maintain their prestige.

In addition to prestige, strategies must include efforts to increase the quality of students, become more selective, and to ramp up marketing, including websites, recruiting efforts, and competitive amenities. Of importance to internationalization would be: creating new master's and doctoral programs, and updating current programs to handle and meet the needs of an increased number of international students.

Recognition: Individual institutions' develop programs that are accommodated by their institutional culture. This is exemplified by NAFSA's Simon Awardees. Simon Awardees are divided into those who have success in developing internationally related programs across campus and those who have singular international programs of excellence. Other institutions look for successful models in these identified institutions. They are large, Michigan State University with a comprehensive approach to internationalization, <http://isp.msu.edu/>; and small, Elon University, nearly all of the student body engages in a study abroad experience, and has for years, http://www.elon.edu/eweb/academics/international_studies/default.xhtml. (conversation with the president of Elon, 3/10/11).

Institutions that recognize the need to understand the international component of higher education on their own campus but need help in bringing together the stakeholders and others with interests benefited from another approach. This method is fostered by the Center for Internationalization and Global Engagement (CIGE) of the American Council on Education. From 2005 - 2008 the Center conducted *The Internationalization Forum for Chief Academic Officer* "funded by the Henry Luce Foundation, (the Forum engaged) 50 chief academic officers from different sectors in a dialogue on broadening and deepening internationalization on their campuses." (para. 1) <http://www.acenet.edu/Content/NavigationMenu/ProgramsServices/cii/current/past/index.htm> In addition, to the

Forum, the CIGE, between 2000 and 2008 made a concerted effort to help institutions understand a variety of methods for internationalizing, for example, ACE published on their website and in print, works that focused on internationalizing the curriculum, assessing international learning, using technology as a tool for internationalization, mapping the internationalization landscape, and reviewing promising practices.

Honors: Another element in the internationalization of institutions has been the emergence of an honor society designed to provide recognition of faculty, staff, and students for the excellence of their work and contributions to international education. Phi Beta Delta was such an organization, established in 1986 at a time when advocates struggled to articulate the meaning of internationalization, and to include faculty in that discussion. Phi Beta Delta served, and continues to serve, as a spring board for recognition, programs, and conversations on campus about the value of international education (Phi Beta Delta, 2011).

Rankings: Rankings have received a fair share of criticism. Yet, when rankings are perceived as beneficial, they are touted. Whatever the prospects (such as improving quality) and problems (such as explaining unfavorable ranks, or issues with ranking methodology, motives, or focus) that rankings bring to higher education, it is difficult to ignore them no matter their source or methodology (Bradburn, 1997). Van der Wende (2007) identifies the impact of rankings on institutional and governmental policies. For those institutions with a positive ranking, these include an increase in reputation, additional publicity, and attracting more and better students. In addition, rankings assist in forming academic partnerships, collaboration, program development, and staff morale. It could also result in an increase in governmental funding, allocation of funds, and research grants. The most commonly referred to rankings include the *The Academic Ranking of World Universities* (ARWU) known as the Shanghai ranking; the [QS World University Rankings](#) and the [Times Higher Education World University Rankings](#). In addition there are the U.S. rankings of

colleges and universities, most notably by the magazine *U.S. News and World Report*.

However, rankings are not without their critics. The OECD avers that, “Rankings are a manifestation of the new competitive higher education environment and a driver of change. While the extent to which these changes are positive or perverse is still debatable, HEIs are concerned about their impact on their reputation, and ability to recruit international and postgraduate students, from academic partnerships, and ensure graduate employment opportunities” (OECD, 2011, para. 2).

The Netherlands Organization for International Cooperation in Higher Education, NUFFIC, sees its higher education institutions, and those in Europe, using a market strategy for participating in international education. Explained from an European perspective, its comments are also relevant to the behavior of U.S. institutions. “Higher education institutions in many countries are therefore making efforts to internationalize their strategies and activities, to offer degree programmes abroad and to implement support services for international students” (NUFFIC, 2011, para. 3).

Regarding choice, the rankings have been linked to changes in national and cross-national application patterns as achievement-oriented students seek the globally top-ranked program in their area (Davie, 2007). Such applicant shifts—which are similar to those seen in response to the U.S. News rankings—have the potential to affect a country’s share of the international market for foreign students. Maslen notes “In terms of opportunities after graduation, some observers note that in a global economy that draws on an increasingly international labor market, employability will come to depend more on the global status or rank of the university conferring the degree” (Maslen, 2007, p. 43).

The Role of Intercultural Competence

In her dissertation, *The identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization at institutions of higher education in the United States*, Deardorff, (2004) gave impetus for evaluation and assessment of study abroad programs. In addition, her placement as the

executive director of AIEA, allows an opportunity to influence this discussion in many locales in the U.S. and abroad. She edited the *The SAGE Handbook of Intercultural Competence* (Deardorff, 2009) and will co-edit *The Sage Handbook of International Higher Education* with De Wit, Heyl & Adams. Her work and advocacy have been a driver of institutions to promote their study abroad programs as serious educational activity, if not for liberal education and values, then for outcomes of a market based approach in which the understanding of their of study abroad adds value to student employment interviews, and improved careers.

Intercultural competence focuses on knowledge of and navigating communication between individuals of different cultures. In *The Evolution of Study Abroad as a Mechanism to Develop Global Competence*, Blumenthal and Grothus explain that this notion has expanded in form and terminology to include competence on a global scale. “Increasingly, institutions have expanded their mission statements to include a commitment to producing ‘globally competent’ graduates who are able to function effectively in the global marketplace and provide leadership in the international arena.” (Blumenthal & Grothus, March 2009, p. 14). Blumenthal and Grothus are presenting an argument to the academic disciplines that expansion of study abroad opportunities for the disciplines included in the STEM fields is needed if the U.S. is to retain its lead in the sciences. In spite of leading institutions having such programs, they suggest that many other institutions with STEM subjects should develop or incorporate into their curriculum such programs abroad.

Academic Disciplines

Academic disciplines have been slow to respond to the advocacy for internationalization. The faculty within the disciplines however, has continued to conduct research abroad and to be engaged internationally. Their approach to internationalization in the past centered on where the research grants came from. Today there is a drive to increase the internationalization of STEM discipline fields of study. For example, there are programs for

engineers to study abroad that are now supported by such institutions as the University of Michigan, Stanford, UC Berkeley, the University of Tennessee, and Texas A&M University. Major professional organizations, such as CIEE offer programs for students with STEM majors and IIE has published white papers such as, *Promoting Study Abroad in Science and Technology Fields* (IIE, 2009).

Typically disciplines focus on the content that advances only their field. However, many fields have components whose research is outside the U.S. such as forestry, anthropology and international relations. Advancing faculty engagement in curriculum development and integration has been the key elements in broadening the engagement of students in study abroad (Green & Shoenberg, 2006; Woodruff, 2009; Childress, 2010; Applebaum, et al, 2009). Although this effort for internationalizing the curriculum by academic disciplines is perhaps the slowest of the initiatives for internationalization, it has emerged more strongly in the past few years. In an attempt to reach advocates and practitioners at the institutional level, the 2011NAFSA conference included a poster session which featured 35 poster presentations on some aspect of internationalizing the curriculum (NAFSA, 2011b). Again this signals that internationalization in higher education institutions requires leadership from the ground up by practitioners in those institutions.

With financial support from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, the two-year *Where Faculty Live: Internationalizing the Disciplines project, 2004-2006*, (Green & Shoenberg, 2006) sought to promote the internationalization of teaching and learning at U.S. colleges and universities through collaboration with four disciplinary associations: the Association of American Geographers, the American Historical Association, the American Political Science Association, and the American Psychological Association.

The goals for this project identified the scope sought:

1. *To articulate global learning outcomes relevant to specific*

disciplines that will inform both the major and general education, and to communicate those outcomes to the participating associations' membership.

2. *To develop action plans for each association to promote internationalization within its respective discipline.*
3. *To explore how the work on internationalization accomplished by the disciplinary associations can be integrated into institutional strategies to promote internationalization.* (Green and Shoenberg, 2006, para. 3).

One report, coming from the early results of the *Where Faculty Live* project, identified an Action Plan for Internationalizing Geography in Higher Education (Solem, 2005).

Throughout the 1980's, as China was opening its doors for more of their students to study abroad, and many other nations were enabled to do the same, the stakeholders for internationalization in U.S. HEIs were preparing its advocates as well as target audiences, such as HE administrators, faculty, students, and Congressional and state representatives to understand the value of international students. To get to the core mission, researchers and advocates, such as Hudzik (NAFSA, 2011) realize that focusing on the curriculum is a way to embed international dimension into the core mission. He says: "A comprehensive approach to internationalization must be all encompassing. Globally informed content is integrated into the vast majority of courses, curricula, and majors" (Hudzik, 2011, p. 40).

CONCLUSIONS

As the concept of the *value of international education* has shifted back and forth, so too did the leadership foster the concept of international education. Internationalization has been a shared endeavor at first guided by perceptions of an ideal governmental policy expressed in the Supplementary Readings to the IEA 1966, and then the reality of government and institutional practice. Leadership for internationalization emerged from a parochial view of the world

after WWII and it carried with it the notions and approaches of that generation. Since that time, stakeholders and advocates have committed many hours on initiatives, colloquia, commissions, task forces, white papers and other means through and with the support of professional organizations, foundations, and higher education institutions, and individuals. Through all of this leadership for internationalization has benefited from:

- Research on the phenomena itself,
- Research on the effects of the phenomena,
- Clarification of definitions,
- Models of implementation,
- Professional organizations as advocates to advance the argument,
- Alliances of various organizations to present a united front for international education,
- Institutions finding reasons for investment in internationalization of the campus, or expansion and support of the international dimension,
- Institutions responding to the global economic and political conditions,
- Realization of the economic impact of educational mobility on higher education,
- Increasing competition from other geographical regions for their share of the world-wide phenomena of educational mobility.

Does this mean that leadership for internationalization is in a fixed form? Probably not. It is most likely that, like the definition of internationalization, leadership in this context resembles an ongoing process. Organizations, individuals, researchers, and in all likelihood, global economic conditions will continue to define how internationalization is conceptualized and implemented. The current process focuses on comprehensive internationalization as an acknowledgement that the institution as a whole must seek change in all areas possible. In the past five years the most vocal leaders for this position have been professional organizations, such as ACE (Green,

2005) and NAFSA (Hudzik, 2011). Another position compatible with but not with the same focus as comprehensive internationalization is intercultural competence. Intercultural competence focuses on the individual sojourner rather than the institution as a whole; though the institution can be affected by the resulting competencies of its study abroad students. By focusing on intercultural competence the institution can engage its critical audience, the student, in a way that advances the interests of both (Deardorff, 2004).

If the goal of many leaders, advocates, and practitioners was to have a place at the table; a role in the conversation on how the institution responded to these advocacy for international education and internationalization, then one question is, would advocates use any argument or method to enhance their role in the internationalization of the institution? The answer has been a challenge for advocates as well as institutions thinking about their future, and how the role international education fits into the core of institutional mission and culture. We have seen how educational institutions must compete for students and must attend to its organizational imperative to survive. The shared leadership for internationalization, presented in this paper, would argue that such imperatives impact the way U.S. institutions must approach their own form of internationalization.

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Author Biography

Dr. Michael B. Smithee has been engaged in international education for the past forty years. For thirty of those years he was an international education administrator and adjunct faculty member at Syracuse University. Now retired, he currently conducts research, writes, and consults through his firm, Smithee Associates, based in South Florida. He has traveled widely and is

experienced on issues of international educational exchange, developing and implementing cross-cultural training and programs, and managing organizational change. Among the presentations he has made and publications he has authored are those on internationalization, culture shock, crisis management, intercultural training, and classroom culture, intercultural aspects of academic integrity, international teaching assistants, and teaching fellows. He has served on boards of directors for educational, community, and professional organizations. He received his Master's Degree in 1970 from Florida State University (International Relations) and his doctorate in 1990 from Syracuse University (Higher Education).

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APPENDIX A.

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION



OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT

June 9, 2009

U.S. House of Representatives
Washington, D.C. 20515

Dear Representative:

I write on behalf of the undersigned higher education associations to urge swift passage of the Foreign Relations Authorization Act for Fiscal Years 2010 and 2011 (H.R. 2410), which includes the Senator Paul Simon Study Abroad Foundation Act of 2009. The Simon bill, which enjoys broad bipartisan support in both the House and Senate, was only one step shy of passage when the 110th Congress ended. We encourage the House to promptly pass this important measure, which will greatly advance and diversify study abroad opportunities for all U.S. undergraduates.

Today's global demands challenge every sector of our economy, both public and private, and affect workers in each of our communities across the country. Our nation's economic competitiveness, diplomatic strategies and security efforts continue to rely on our ability to understand and communicate with the rest of the world. However, even with these increased demands for global skills, only about 1 percent of our students have the opportunity to study abroad each year.

This legislation, which follows the excellent work of the congressionally and federally appointed Commission on the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Fellowship Program, sets the goal of having 1 million students studying abroad annually within 10 years' time and establishes a structure to achieve that goal. The program will enable students from all backgrounds to have a quality study abroad experience and expand study abroad opportunities to non-traditional but critical destinations, with a specific emphasis on developing countries.

Together, we ask the House to pass this legislation that will vastly improve the global knowledge base of our college graduates, advance our nation's economic networks and serve vital diplomacy and security needs worldwide.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Molly Corbett Broad".

Molly Corbett Broad
President

MCB/dw

On behalf of:
Abroadco

One Dupont Circle NW, Washington, DC 20036-1193
Telephone: (202) 939-9355 • Fax: (202) 833-4762
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Abroad View Foundation
American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers
American Association of Community Colleges
American Association of State Colleges and Universities
American Council on Education
American Institute for Foreign Study
American Political Science Association
AMIDEAST
Asia Society
Association for Safe International Road Travel
Association of Jesuit Colleges and Universities
Association of Public and Land-grant Universities
AustraLearn/AsiaLearn/EuroLearn (Educational Programs of GlobalLinks)
Bardoli Global
CEA – Global Education Solutions
Center for Global Education at Loyola Marymount University
CEMAT – The Center for Maghribi Studies in Tunis
CIEE – Council on International Educational Exchange
Community Colleges for International Development
Council for Opportunity in Education
Council on International Education of the State University of New York
EDUCAUSE
Global Student Experience
GoAbroad.com
Hispanic Association of Colleges and Universities
IES Abroad
Institute for Study Abroad
International Student Exchange Program
LanguageCorps
Language Magazine
LASPAU: Academic and Professional Programs for the Americas
NAFSA: Association of International Educators
National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education
National Council for Languages and International Studies
Phelps Stokes Fund
Semester at Sea and Institute for Shipboard Education
StudyAbroad.com
Transitions Abroad
University Continuing Education Association
U.S. Center for Citizen Diplomacy
World Education Services, Inc.
World Learning
United Negro College Fund

APPENDIX B. Members of The Alliance for International Educational and Cultural Exchange

<p>Academic Year in America AFS Intercultural Programs, USA AIESEC United States AIFS (American Institute for Foreign Study) AIFS Foundation Alliance Abroad Group (AAG) American Association of Community Colleges (AACCC) American Association of Intensive English Programs American Council for International Studies American Council on Education (ACE) American Council on International Personnel (ACIP) American Councils for International Education: ACTR/ACCELS American Immigration Council The American-Scandinavian Foundation American Secondary Schools for International Students and Teachers (ASSIST) AMIDEAST Amity Institute ASSE International Student Exchange Programs ASSE Work Experience Programs Association of International Education Administrators (AIEA) Au Pair in America AuPairCare AYUSA Global Youth Exchange BUNAC USA Camp America CAORC: Council of American Overseas Research Centers CCUSA Center for Cultural Interchange (CCI) CIEE: Council on International Educational Exchange The College Board Communicating for Agriculture Concordia Language Villages (CLV) Council for Educational Travel, USA (CETUSA) Council of International Programs USA (CIPUSA) Council on Standards for International Educational Travel (CSIET) Cultural Care Au Pair Cultural Exchange Network (CENET) Cultural Homestay International (CHI) Cultural Vistas Educational and Cultural Interactions (ECI) Educational Testing Service EF Foundation for Foreign Study EurAupair Intercultural Child Care Programs fhi360</p>	<p>French-American Chamber of Commerce (FACC) The Fulbright Association Geovisions German American Chamber of Commerce (GACCNY) goAUPAIR IDP Education iEARN-USA Institute of International Education (IIE) InterExchange International Cultural Exchange Organization (ICEO) International Cultural Exchange Services (ICES) International Exchange of North America (IENA) Intrax Cultural Exchange IREX LASPAU: Academic and Professional Programs for the Americas MAST International Meridian International Center NAFSA: Association of International Educators National Council for Eurasian and East European Research (NCEEER) National Council for International Visitors (NCIV) The Ohio Program (TOP) Pacific Intercultural Exchange (P.I.E) PAX - Program of Academic Exchange People to People International (PTPI) Sister Cities International (SCI) STS Foundation STS Global Studies Inc. Summer Institute for the Gifted University and College Intensive English Programs (UCIEP) World Education Services (WES) World Heritage World Learning YMCA International Youth For Understanding USA (YFU USA)</p> <hr/> <p>Partners Compass Benefits Group Global Secutive International Institute for Exchange Programs (I2) ISPS Taxback.com Travel Guard Insurance Work & Travel Insurance Services</p>
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ENDNOTES

ⁱ Bailey at the time of this writing was the Dean of the Maxwell School at Syracuse University.

ⁱⁱ<http://international.uiowa.edu/oiss/documents/Fall-2010-Statistical-Report.pdf> on page 3 this report from the Office of International Students and Scholars at the University of Iowa has a statement on the economic benefits of international students to the local community and to the state of Iowa.

ⁱⁱⁱ During the period of retrenchment many higher education institutions in the early 90's, were asking their departments to develop proposals to significantly reduce their staff. In at least one institution the author is familiar with the calculation of the value of international students to the institution and community was taken to the institutional president by the president of the graduate student organization, who happened to be an international student. This resulted in the avoidance of loss of international students by cancelling a proposed 30% reduction of departmental staff.

^{iv} SEVIS is the Student and Exchange Visitor Information System, <http://www.ice.gov/sevis/>. This system went live on August 1, 2003. From the webpage: "SEVP uses the Student and Exchange Visitor Information System (SEVIS), a web-based solution, to track and monitor schools and programs, students, exchange visitors and their dependents while approved to participate in the U.S. education system" (para. 3).

^v Though not a specific focus of this paper, globalization has emerged as a term that purports to overshadow the usage of internationalization. As such it is driven more by market liberalism. Wood (2010) explains that universities are finding a need to contend with the forces of globalization and describes it in broad terms. "The term 'globalization' represents the international system that is shaping most societies today. It is a process that is "super charging" the interaction and integration of cultures, politics, business and intellectual elements around world." (Wood, para. 1) Institutional perceptions of the effect of globalization on higher education in general and their institution in particular include the idea that, "The internationalization of campus and community is both an opportunity and a challenge that must be dealt with today. Study results indicated that university leaders understand and embrace this point and feel an urgency to deal with it. Those in charge of programs, curricula and initiatives are looking for solutions to the challenges of globalization." (para. 5). [Wood, Van R., (2010) Globalization and Higher Education: Eight Common Perceptions From University Leaders, <http://www.anienetwork.org/content/globalization-and-higher-education-eight-common-perceptions-university-leaders.>]